



# Rational Points of Some Elliptic Curves Related to the Tilings of the Equilateral Triangle

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## Abstract

Let  $n$  be a positive and squarefree integer. We show that the equilateral triangle can be dissected into  $n \cdot k^2$  congruent triangles for some  $k$  if and only if  $n \leq 3$ , or at least one of the curves  $C_n : y^2 = x(x - n)(x + 3n)$  and  $C_{-n} : y^2 = x(x + n)(x - 3n)$  has a rational point with  $y \neq 0$ . We prove that if  $p$  is a positive prime such that  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then  $C_p$  and  $C_{-p}$  do not have such points. Consequently, for these primes the equilateral triangle cannot be dissected into  $p \cdot k^2$  congruent triangles for any  $k$ .

**Keywords** Tilings of the equilateral triangle · Rank of some elliptic curves over the rationals

## 1 Introduction and Main Results

Let  $C_n$  denote the elliptic curve  $y^2 = x(x - n)(x + 3n)$ , where  $n$  is an integer. The group of rational points of  $C_n$  will be denoted by  $\Gamma_n$ . We say that  $(x, y) \in C_n$  is a nontrivial rational point of  $C_n$  if  $x, y$  are nonzero rational numbers; that is, if the order of  $(x, y)$  as an element of the group  $\Gamma_n$  is greater than two. Our first result shows that the existence of nontrivial rational points of  $C_n$  is closely related to the number of pieces in certain tilings of the equilateral triangle.

**Theorem 1.1** *For every positive and squarefree integer  $n$  the following are equivalent.*

- (i) *There is a positive integer  $k$  such that the equilateral triangle can be dissected into  $n \cdot k^2$  congruent triangles.*
- (ii) *Either  $n \leq 3$ , or at least one of the curves  $C_n$  and  $C_{-n}$  has a nontrivial rational point.*

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Dedicated to the memory of Ricky Pollack.

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The proof of Theorem 1.1 is based on the fact that the congruent copies of a triangle with sides  $a, b, c$  and corresponding angles  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  tile an equilateral triangle if and only if either  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  are multiples of  $\pi/6$ , or  $\gamma \in \{\pi/3, 2\pi/3\}$  and  $a, b, c$  are pairwise commensurable (see [4, Thm. 3.3]). By the law of cosines, we have  $\gamma = \pi/3$  or  $2\pi/3$  if and only if  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 \pm ab$ . Such triples are, e.g.,  $(a, b, c) = (7, 8, 13)$  or  $(a, b, c) = (3, 5, 7)$ .

Suppose that  $a, b, c$  are positive integers with  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 \pm ab$ . Then the triangle with sides  $a, b, c$  tiles an equilateral triangle  $T$ . If the side length of  $T$  is  $m$  and the tiling has  $N$  pieces, then, comparing the areas we get  $m^2 = N \cdot ab$ , and thus the square free part of  $N$  is the same as that of  $ab$ . For example, if  $(a, b, c) = (7, 8, 13)$ , then the construction described in [3, Thm. 3.1] produces a tiling with 2,469,600 =  $14 \cdot 420^2$  pieces. For the triangle with sides 3, 5, 7, a tiling with 10,935 =  $15 \cdot 27^2$  pieces was found by Michael Beeson (see [2, Fig. 22, p. 28]).

As we shall see, a simple transformation maps these triples into nontrivial rational points of one of the corresponding curves  $C_n$  or  $C_{-n}$ . Thus the triple  $(7, 8, 13)$  gives the point  $(-6, 48)$  of  $C_{-14}$ , and  $(3, 5, 7)$  gives the point  $(-5, 50)$  of  $C_{-15}$ .

In the other direction, every nontrivial rational point of  $C_n$  or  $C_{-n}$  determines a triple  $(a, b, c)$  as above. For example, from the point  $(-1, 8)$  of  $C_{-5}$  we obtain the triple  $(5, 16, 19)$ , and from the point  $(-1, 30)$  of  $C_{17}$  we get  $(17, 225, 217)$ . The proof of Theorem 1.1 will be given in the next section.

**Remarks 1.2** 1. Since every triangle  $\Delta$  can be dissected into  $m^2$  congruent triangles similar to  $\Delta$  for every  $m$ , it is clear that (i) of Theorem 1.1 is equivalent to the following statement.

(i') *There are infinitely many positive integers  $k$  such that the equilateral triangle can be dissected into  $n \cdot k^2$  congruent triangles.*

2. We shall prove in Lemma 3.1 that if  $p$  is a positive prime, then the only torsion points of  $\Gamma_p$  and  $\Gamma_{-p}$  are the points having zero  $y$ -coordinates. Therefore, if  $n$  is a positive prime, then (ii) of Theorem 1.1 is equivalent to the following statement.

(ii') *Either  $n \leq 3$ , or at least one of the groups  $\Gamma_n$  and  $\Gamma_{-n}$  has positive rank.*

It is easy to see that if  $n, k$  are nonzero integers then  $C_n$  has a nontrivial rational point if and only if  $C_{nk^2}$  has one. Therefore, we have the following corollary of Theorem 1.1.

**Corollary 1.3** *If the equilateral triangle can be dissected into  $N$  congruent triangles, then either  $N = k^2$ ,  $N = 2k^2$  or  $N = 3k^2$  for some  $k$ , or at least one of the curves  $C_N$  and  $C_{-N}$  has a nontrivial rational point.*

We remark that the converse is not true. For example,  $(-1, 8)$  is a nontrivial rational point of  $C_{-5}$ , but the equilateral triangle cannot be dissected into 5 congruent triangles. This follows from a result of Beeson stating that the equilateral triangle cannot be dissected into  $p$  congruent triangles for any prime  $p > 3$  (see [1]). On the other hand, the equilateral triangle can be dissected into  $5k^2$  congruent triangles for infinitely many positive integer  $k$  by Theorem 1.1.

In Sect. 3 we shall prove that if  $p$  is a positive prime and  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then the curves  $C_p$  and  $C_{-p}$  have no nontrivial rational points (see Corollary 3.6). Comparing with Theorem 1.1 we obtain the following.

**Corollary 1.4** *If  $p$  is a positive prime such that  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then the equilateral triangle cannot be dissected into  $p \cdot k^2$  congruent triangles for any  $k$ .*

## 2 Proof of Theorem 1.1

(i)  $\Rightarrow$  (ii): Suppose that the equilateral triangle  $T$  can be tiled with  $n \cdot k^2$  congruent triangles having angles  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  and corresponding sides  $a, b, c$ . We may assume that the sides of  $T$  equal 1.

By [4, Thm. 3.3], one of the following cases holds:  $\alpha = \beta = \pi/6$  and  $\gamma = 2\pi/3$ ;  $\alpha = \pi/6, \beta = \pi/2, \gamma = \pi/3$ ;  $\gamma \in \{\pi/3, 2\pi/3\}$  and  $a, b, c$  are pairwise commensurable.

Comparing the areas of  $T$  and the tiles we obtain  $nk^2 \cdot ab \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}$ ; that is,

$$nk^2 \cdot ab = 1. \quad (1)$$

If  $\alpha = \beta = \pi/6$ , then  $a = b$  and thus, by (1),  $a = b = 1/(k \cdot \sqrt{n})$ . By  $c/a = \sqrt{3}$  we have  $c = \sqrt{3}/(k \cdot \sqrt{n})$ . Since the side of the equilateral triangle is tiled with segments of length  $a$  and  $c$ , we obtain  $1 = ra + sc$  with suitable nonnegative integers  $r, s$ . Thus  $r + s\sqrt{3} = k \cdot \sqrt{n}$ . Since  $n$  is squarefree, this implies  $n = 1$  or  $n = 3$ .

If  $\alpha = \pi/6, \beta = \pi/2$  and  $\gamma = \pi/3$ , then  $b = 2a$  and thus, by (1),  $a = 1/(k \cdot \sqrt{2n})$ . By  $c/a = \sqrt{3}$  we have  $c = \sqrt{3}/(k \cdot \sqrt{2n})$ . The side of the equilateral triangle is tiled with segments of length  $a, 2a$  and  $c$ , hence  $1 = ra + sc$  with suitable nonnegative integers  $r, s$ . Thus  $r + s\sqrt{3} = k \cdot \sqrt{2n}$ . Since  $n$  is squarefree, this implies  $n = 2$  or  $n = 6$ . Now (9, 27) is a point of  $C_6 : y^2 = x(x - 6)(x + 18)$ , and thus the statement of (ii) is true in these cases.

In the remaining cases  $a, b, c$  are pairwise commensurable, and  $\gamma = \pi/3$  or  $\gamma = 2\pi/3$ . Then we have  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 \pm ab$  by the law of cosines. Since  $qa + rb + sc = 1$  with nonnegative integers  $q, r, s$ , it follows that  $a, b, c$  are rational. Replacing  $a$  by  $-a$  if necessary, we may assume  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 + ab$ . Under this change (1) becomes  $\pm nk^2 \cdot ab = 1$ . We put  $t = (c - b)/a$ ; then  $t$  is rational, and  $b = c - ta$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} c^2 &= a^2 + b^2 + ab = a^2 + (c - ta)^2 + ac - ta^2 \\ &= a^2(t^2 - t + 1) - 2act + ac + c^2, \end{aligned}$$

$a^2(t^2 - t + 1) = ac(2t - 1)$ , and  $a/c = (2t - 1)/d$ , where  $d = t^2 - t + 1$ . Note that  $d \neq 0$ , as the polynomial  $X^2 - X + 1$  has no rational roots. Then we have  $b/c = 1 - (ta/c) = (1 - t^2)/d$ . From (1) we get

$$1 = \pm nk^2 ab = \pm n \cdot (2t - 1)(1 - t^2) \cdot (ck/d)^2$$

and  $(2t - 1)(t^2 - 1) = \mp nv^2$ , where  $v = d/(nkc)$  is a nonzero rational number.

Putting  $x = n(2t - 1)$  we get  $t = (x + n)/(2n)$ ,  $t - 1 = (x - n)/(2n)$ ,  $t + 1 = (x + 3n)/(2n)$ , and

$$x(x - n)(x + 3n) = (2t - 1)(t^2 - 1) \cdot 4n^3 = \mp nv^2 \cdot 4n^3 = \mp y^2,$$

where  $y = 2n^2v$ . Therefore, either  $(x, y)$  is a point of  $C_n$  or  $(-x, y)$  is a point of  $C_{-n}$ . (ii)  $\Rightarrow$  (i): It is clear that if  $n \leq 3$  then the equilateral triangle can be dissected into  $n$  congruent triangles.

Suppose that  $x, y$  are rational numbers,  $y \neq 0$ , and  $(x, y)$  is a rational point of either  $C_n$  or  $C_{-n}$ . Then one of  $t = x/n$  and  $t = -x/n$  satisfies  $t(t+1)(t-3) = \pm y^2/n^3$ . Fix such a  $t$ . Note that  $t \neq 0, -1, 3$ . Putting  $a = 4t$ ,  $b = t^2 - 2t - 3$  and  $c = t^2 + 3$  we have  $ab \neq 0$  and  $a^2 + b^2 + ab = c^2$ . Then  $|a|, |b|, c$  are the sides of a rational triangle  $\Delta$  such that  $a^2 + b^2 \pm |a| \cdot |b| = c^2$ , and thus, by the law of cosines, the angle between the sides of length  $|a|$  and  $|b|$  equals  $\pi/3$  or  $2\pi/3$ . By [3, Thm. 3.1], there is an equilateral triangle  $T$  that can be dissected into triangles congruent to  $\Delta$ . Let  $m$  be the length of the side of  $T$ , and let  $N$  be the number of pieces of the decomposition. Then  $N|ab| = m^2$ , hence

$$m^2/N = |ab| = 4|t(t^2 - 2t - 3)| = 4|t(t+1)(t-3)| = 4y^2/n^3$$

and  $N = n^3 m^2 / (4y^2) = nk^2$ , where  $k = nm/(2y)$ . Now  $k$  is rational and  $n$  is squarefree by assumption, so  $N = nk^2$  implies that  $k$  must be an integer. We have found a dissection of  $T$  into  $n \cdot k^2$  congruent triangles, proving (i).  $\square$

### 3 Rational Points of $C_{\pm p}$

In this section we show that if  $p$  is a positive prime and  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then  $C_p$  and  $C_{-p}$  have no nontrivial rational points (see Corollary 3.6). Recall that the group of rational points of  $C_n$  is denoted by  $\Gamma_n$ .

**Lemma 3.1** *Let  $p$  be a positive prime. Then the torsion points of the group  $\Gamma_p$  are the points  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(p, 0)$ ,  $(-3p, 0)$  and  $\mathcal{O}$  (the point at infinity). The torsion points of  $\Gamma_{-p}$  are the points  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(-p, 0)$ ,  $(3p, 0)$  and  $\mathcal{O}$ .*

**Proof** The points listed above, being of order two and one, are torsion points. Suppose there exists another torsion point  $(x, y)$ . Since the discriminant of the curves equals  $p^2 \cdot (3p)^2 \cdot (4p)^2 = 3^2 \cdot 2^4 \cdot p^6$ , it follows from the Nagell–Lutz theorem that  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $y \neq 0$  and  $y \mid 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot p^3$ . We distinguish between two cases.

Case I:  $p \mid y$ . Then  $p \mid x$ ,  $x = pz$ ,  $p^2 \mid y$ ,  $y = p^2u$ ,  $u \neq 0$ , and

$$pu^2 = z(z \mp 1)(z \pm 3). \quad (2)$$

Clearly,  $z \geq -2$ . It is easy to check that if  $-2 \leq z \leq 13$  then  $z(z \mp 1)(z \pm 3)$  is not of the form  $qu^2$ , where  $q$  is prime and  $u \neq 0$ , except when  $z = 4$  and  $z(z+1)(z-3) = 5 \cdot 2^2$ . This gives the point  $P_1 = (20, 50)$  of  $\Gamma_{-5}$ . One can easily check that the  $x$ -coordinate of  $2P_1$  is not an integer, hence  $P_1$  is not a torsion point. (Thus  $\Gamma_{-5}$  has positive rank.) Therefore, we may assume  $z \geq 14$ .

If  $p = 2$  or  $p = 3$  then  $y = p^2u \mid 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot p^3$  implies that all prime factors of  $z$  and  $z \pm 1$  are 2 and 3. Thus  $z = 2^\alpha$ ,  $z \pm 1 = 3^\beta$  or the other way around. Then  $z \leq 10$  which is impossible.

Therefore, we may assume  $p > 3$ . Then at most one of the terms  $z, z \mp 1, z \pm 3$  is divisible by  $p$ . Since  $u \mid 3 \cdot 2^2 \cdot p^3$ , it follows from (2) that the product of two of the terms  $z, z \mp 1, z \pm 3$  is a divisor of  $3^2 \cdot 2^4 = 144$ . By  $z \geq 4$  this implies  $z(z-3) \leq 144$ , hence  $z \leq 13$  which is impossible.

Case II:  $p \nmid y$ . Then  $y \mid 12$ . Replacing  $x$  by  $-x$  if necessary, we have  $x(x+p)(x-3p) = \pm y^2$ , and thus

$$|x(x+p)(x-3p)| = y^2 \mid 144. \quad (3)$$

It is easy to see that if  $a$  is a positive integer and  $x$  is an integer different from 0 and  $a$ , then  $|x(a-x)| \geq a-1$ . Therefore,  $|x(x+p)| \geq p-1$ ,  $|x(x-3p)| \geq 3p-1$ ,  $|(x+p)(x-3p)| \geq 4p-1$ ,

$$(p-1)(3p-1)(4p-1) \leq |x(x+p)(x-3p)|^2 \leq 144^2,$$

and thus  $p \leq 11$ .

It follows from (3) that there are (positive or negative) divisors  $d_1, d_2$  of 144 such that  $d_2 - d_1 = 4p$ ,  $|x \cdot d_1 \cdot d_2|$  is a square and is a divisor of 144, where  $x = d_2 - p$ . Checking the cases  $p = 2, 3, 5, 7, 11$ , we find that the only possibility is  $p = 5$ ,  $(d_1, d_2) = (-16, 4)$  and  $x = -1$ . This gives the point  $P_2 = (-1, 8)$  of  $\Gamma_{-5}$ . One can easily check that  $P_2 = P_1 + P_0$ , where  $P_0 = (-5, 0)$  and  $P_1 = (20, 50)$ . Since  $P_0$  is a torsion point of  $\Gamma_{-5}$  and  $P_1$  is not, it follows that  $P_2$  is not a torsion point either.  $\square$

### Theorem 3.2

- (i) *The rank of  $\Gamma_p$  is at most two for every positive prime  $p$ .*
- (ii) *If  $p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{24}$ , then the rank of  $\Gamma_p$  is at most one.*
- (iii) *If  $p = 2$ ,  $p = 3$  or  $p \equiv 5, 7$  or  $19 \pmod{24}$ , then the rank of  $\Gamma_p$  is zero.*

In the proof of Theorem 3.2 we apply the method described in [5, §5, Chap. III, pp. 92–94]. Consider the curves

$$C_p : y^2 = x^3 + 2px^2 - 3p^2x \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{C}_p : y^2 = x^3 - 4px^2 + 16p^2x$$

with groups of rational points  $\Gamma_p = C_p(\mathbb{Q})$  and  $\overline{\Gamma}_p = \overline{C}_p(\mathbb{Q})$ . We define  $\alpha : \Gamma_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$  by  $\alpha(\mathcal{O}) = 1$ ,  $\alpha(0, 0) = -3p^2 \equiv -3$  and, for  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\alpha(x, y) = x \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ . Then  $\alpha$  is a homomorphism from  $\Gamma_p$  into  $\mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$ .

We also define  $\overline{\alpha} : \overline{\Gamma}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$  by  $\overline{\alpha}(\mathcal{O}) = 1$ ,  $\overline{\alpha}(0, 0) = 16p^2 \equiv 1$  and, for  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\overline{\alpha}(x, y) = x \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ . Then  $\overline{\alpha}$  is a homomorphism from  $\overline{\Gamma}_p$  into  $\mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$ . The rank  $r$  of  $\Gamma_p$  satisfies

$$2^r = \frac{\#\alpha(\Gamma_p) \cdot \#\overline{\alpha}(\overline{\Gamma}_p)}{4} \quad (4)$$

(see [5, p. 91]). Here  $\alpha(\Gamma_p)$  equals the set of divisors  $b_1$  of  $b = -3p^2 \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$  such that the equation

$$N^2 = b_1 M^4 + 2pM^2 e^2 + (-3p^2/b_1) e^4 \quad (5)$$

is solvable in pairwise coprime integers  $N, M, e$  satisfying  $M \neq 0$  and  $\gcd(e, b_1) = \gcd(M, -3p^2/b_1) = 1$  (see [5, pp. 92–93]). Similarly,  $\alpha(\bar{\Gamma}_p)$  equals the set of divisors  $b_1$  of  $\bar{b} = 16p^2 \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$  such that the equation

$$N^2 = b_1 M^4 - 4pM^2 e^2 + (16p^2/b_1) e^4 \quad (6)$$

is solvable in pairwise coprime integers  $N, M, e$  satisfying  $M \neq 0$  and  $\gcd(e, b_1) = \gcd(M, 16p^2/b_1) = 1$ .

The statement of Theorem 3.2 is an immediate consequence of (4) and of the following lemma.

### Lemma 3.3

- (i)  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_p) \leq 8$  for every positive prime  $p$ .
- (ii) If  $p = 2, p = 3$  or  $p \equiv 5, 7, 13$  or  $19 \pmod{24}$ , then  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_p) \leq 4$ .
- (iii)  $\#\alpha(\bar{\Gamma}_p) \leq 2$  for every positive prime  $p$ .
- (iv) If  $p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ , then  $\#\alpha(\bar{\Gamma}_p) = 1$ .

### Proof

- (i) is obvious from  $b_1 \in \{\pm 1, \pm 3, \pm p, \pm 3p\} \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ .
- (ii) If  $p = 3$  then  $b_1 \in \{\pm 1, \pm 3\} \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ , and  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_p) \leq 4$ . Therefore, we may assume  $p \neq 3$ . We have  $(p, 0), (-3p, 0) \in \Gamma_p$  and  $\alpha(0, 0) = -3p^2 \equiv -3$ , and thus  $1, p, -3, -3p \in \alpha(\Gamma_p)$ . Since  $\alpha(\Gamma_p)$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Q}^*/\mathbb{Q}^{*2}$ , it follows that  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_p)$  equals 4 or 8, and it equals 8 if and only if  $-1 \in \alpha(\Gamma_p)$ .

Suppose that  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_p) = 8$ . Then  $-1 \in \alpha(\Gamma_p)$  and thus, by  $b_1 \mid 3p^2$ , (5) is solvable for at least one of  $b_1 = -1$  and  $b_1 = -p^2$ .

Suppose that  $N^2 = -M^4 + 2pM^2 e^2 + 3p^2 e^4$  is solvable. If  $p = 2$ , then  $M$  is odd by  $\gcd(M, 3p^2) = 1$ , and  $N^2 \equiv -M^4 \pmod{4}$ , which is impossible. If  $p > 3$ , then  $p \nmid M$  by  $\gcd(M, 3p^2) = 1$ , and thus we have  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

We have  $N^2 = (3pe^2 - M^2)(pe^2 + M^2) = A \cdot B$ . Since  $p \nmid M$  and  $\gcd(M, e) = 1$ , it follows that  $\gcd(A, B) \mid 4$ . If  $\gcd(A, B) = 1$  or  $4$ , then  $A$  and  $B$  are squares. Thus  $3pe^2 - M^2 = n^2$ , hence  $-M^2 \equiv n^2 \pmod{3}$ , which is impossible, as  $3 \nmid M$ .

If  $\gcd(A, B) = 2$ , then  $A/2$  and  $B/2$  are squares. Thus  $3pe^2 - M^2 = 2n^2$ , hence  $-M^2 \equiv 2n^2 \pmod{p}$ . Since  $p \nmid M$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , we get  $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = 1$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ .

Next suppose that  $N^2 = -p^2 M^4 + 2pM^2 e^2 + 3e^4$  is solvable. Then we have  $\gcd(M, 3) = 1$ . If  $p = 2$ , then  $e$  is odd (since otherwise both  $N$  and  $e$  would be even), and  $N^2 \equiv 3e^4 \pmod{4}$ , which is impossible. Suppose  $p > 3$ . Then  $p \nmid e$  (since otherwise both  $e$  and  $N$  would be divisible by  $p$ ), and thus  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$  and  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$ .

We have  $N^2 = (3e^2 - pM^2)(e^2 + pM^2) = C \cdot D$ . Since  $p \nmid e$  and  $\gcd(M, e) = 1$ , it follows that  $\gcd(C, D) \mid 4$ . If  $\gcd(C, D) = 1$  or  $4$ , then  $C$  and  $D$  are squares. Thus  $3e^2 - pM^2 = n^2$ ,  $-pM^2 \equiv n^2 \pmod{3}$ ,  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$  and  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{12}$ .

If  $\gcd(C, D) = 2$ , then  $C/2$  and  $D/2$  are squares. Thus  $e^2 + pM^2 = 2n^2$ , hence  $e^2 \equiv 2n^2 \pmod{p}$ ,  $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = 1$ ,  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}$ .

We proved that if  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_p) = 8$ , then  $p > 3$  and either  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , or  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{12}$ . This proves (ii).

(iii) We have to estimate  $\#\alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_p)$ . It is clear that if  $b_1 < 0$  then (6) has no solutions, and thus, by  $b_1 \mid 16p^2$ , we have  $b_1 \in \{2^\alpha p^\beta : 0 \leq \alpha \leq 4, 0 \leq \beta \leq 2\}$ . If  $p = 2$ , then we obtain  $\alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_p) \subset \{1, 2\} \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ . Therefore, we may assume  $p > 2$ .

Let  $b_1 = 2p^\beta$ , and suppose that (6) is solvable. Then  $M$  is odd by  $\gcd(M, 16p^2/b_1) = 1$ , and thus the left hand side of (6) is divisible by 4, while the right hand side is not, which is impossible.

Next let  $b_1 = 8p^\beta$ , and suppose that (6) is solvable. Then  $N$  is even and, consequently,  $e$  is odd. Thus the left hand side of (6) is divisible by 4, while the right hand side is not, which is impossible. We obtain that  $b_1 \in \{1, p, p^2, 4, 4p, 4p^2, 16, 16p, 16p^2\}$  and  $b_1 \in \{1, p\} \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ . This proves (iii).

(iv) Suppose that  $\#\alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_p) = 2$ . Then  $p \in \alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_p)$ , and (6) is solvable for at least one of  $b_1 = p$ ,  $b_1 = 4p$  and  $b_1 = 16p$ .

Let  $b_1 = p$ , and suppose that  $N^2 = pM^4 - 4pM^2e^2 + 16pe^4$  is solvable. Then  $M$  is odd by  $\gcd(M, 16p) = 1$ , and  $N^2 \equiv pM^4 \pmod{4}$ . Hence  $p > 2$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . We have  $N = pN_1$  and

$$pN_1^2 = M^4 - 4M^2e^2 + 16e^4 = (M^2 - 2e^2)^2 + 12e^4.$$

Now  $p \nmid e$  by  $\gcd(e, b_1) = 1$ , and we get  $\left(\frac{-12}{p}\right) = 1$ . Since  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , we obtain  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$ ,  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ .

The case  $b_1 = 16p$  is similar with the roles of  $M$  and  $e$  exchanged. Therefore, if (6) is solvable for  $b_1 = 16p$ , then  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ .

Finally, let  $b_1 = 4p$ , and suppose that  $N^2 = 4pM^4 - 4pM^2e^2 + 4pe^4$  is solvable. Then  $2 \nmid M$  by  $\gcd(M, 4p) = 1$ , and  $2p \mid N$ . Let  $N = 2pN_1$ , then  $pN_1^2 = M^4 - M^2e^2 + e^4$ . Since  $M$  is odd, we have  $M^4 - M^2e^2 + e^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , and thus  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . We have

$$4pN_1^2 = 4M^4 - 4M^2e^2 + 4e^4 = (2M^2 - e^2)^2 + 3e^4.$$

Now  $p \nmid e$  by  $\gcd(e, b_1) = 1$ , and we get  $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = 1$ . Since  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , we obtain  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$ ,  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ .

We proved that if  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_p) = 2$ , then  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ . This proves (iv).  $\square$

Our next aim is to prove

### Theorem 3.4

- (i) The rank of  $\Gamma_{-p}$  is at most two for every positive prime  $p$ .
- (ii) If  $p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ , then the rank of  $\Gamma_{-p}$  is at most one.
- (iii) If  $p = 2$ ,  $p = 3$  or  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then the rank of  $\Gamma_{-p}$  is zero.

We consider the curves

$$C_{-p} : y^2 = x^3 - 2px^2 - 3p^2x \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{C}_{-p} : y^2 = x^3 + 4px^2 + 16p^2x.$$

First we prove the following lemma.

### Lemma 3.5

- (i)  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_{-p}) \leq 8$  for every prime  $p$ .
- (ii) If  $p = 2$ ,  $p = 3$  or  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{12}$ , then  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_{-p}) \leq 4$ .
- (iii)  $\#\alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_{-p}) \leq 2$  for every prime  $p$ .
- (iv) If  $p \neq 3$  and  $p \not\equiv 1, 13$  or  $19 \pmod{24}$ , then  $\#\alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_{-p}) = 1$ .

**Proof** The proof of the statement (i) is the same as in the case of Lemma 3.3.

(ii) Suppose  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_{-p}) = 8$ . As in the proof of (ii) of Lemma 3.3, this implies  $p \neq 3$  and  $-1 \in \alpha(\Gamma_{-p})$ . Therefore, by  $b_1 \mid -3p^2$ ,  $N^2 = b_1M^4 - 2pM^2e^2 + (-3p^2/b_1)e^4$  is solvable for at least one of  $b_1 = -1$  and  $b_1 = -p^2$ .

Suppose that  $N^2 = -M^4 - 2pM^2e^2 + 3p^2e^4$  is solvable. If  $p = 2$ , then  $M$  is odd by  $\gcd(M, 3p^2) = 1$ , and  $N^2 \equiv -M^4 \pmod{4}$ , which is impossible. If  $p > 3$ , then  $p \nmid M$  by  $\gcd(M, 3p^2) = 1$ , and thus we have  $(\frac{-1}{p}) = 1$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

Next suppose that  $N^2 = -p^2M^4 - 2pM^2e^2 + 3e^4$  is solvable; then  $\gcd(M, 3) = 1$ . If  $p = 2$ , then  $e$  is odd (since otherwise both  $N$  and  $e$  would be even), and  $N^2 \equiv 3e^4 \pmod{4}$ , which is impossible. Suppose  $p > 3$ . Then  $p \nmid e$  by  $\gcd(e, b_1) = 1$ , and thus  $(\frac{3}{p}) = 1$  and  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$ .

We have  $N^2 = (3e^2 + pM^2)(e^2 - pM^2) = C \cdot D$ . Since  $p \nmid e$  and  $\gcd(M, e) = 1$ , it follows that  $\gcd(C, D) \mid 4$ . If  $\gcd(C, D) = 1$  or  $4$ , then  $C$  and  $D$  are squares. Thus  $3e^2 + pM^2 = n^2$ ,  $pM^2 \equiv n^2 \pmod{3}$ ,  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ .

If  $\gcd(C, D) = 2$ , then  $C/2$  and  $D/2$  are squares. Thus  $3e^2 + pM^2 = 2n^2$ , hence  $p \equiv pM^2 \equiv 2n^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . Since  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$ , we get  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{12}$ .

We proved that if  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_{-p}) = 8$ , then  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  or  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{12}$ . This proves (ii).

(iii) The argument proving (iii) of Lemma 3.3 shows that  $\alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_{-p}) \subset \{1, p\} \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ .

(iv) Suppose  $\#\alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_{-p}) = 2$ . Then  $p \in \alpha(\overline{\Gamma}_{-p})$ , and

$$N^2 = b_1M^4 + 4pM^2e^2 + (16p^2/b_1)e^4$$

is solvable for at least one of  $b_1 = p$ ,  $b_1 = 4p$  and  $b_1 = 16p$ .

Let  $b_1 = p$ , and suppose that  $N^2 = pM^4 + 4pM^2e^2 + 16pe^4$  is solvable. Then  $M$  is odd by  $\gcd(M, 16p) = 1$ , and  $N^2 \equiv pM^4 \pmod{4}$ . Hence  $p > 2$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . We have  $N = pN_1$  and

$$pN_1^2 = M^4 + 4M^2e^2 + 16e^4 = (M^2 + 2e^2)^2 + 12e^4.$$

Now  $p \nmid e$  by  $\gcd(e, b_1) = 1$ , and we get  $(\frac{-12}{p}) = 1$ . Since  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , we obtain  $(\frac{3}{p}) = 1$ ,  $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ .

The case  $b_1 = 16p$  is similar with the roles of  $M$  and  $e$  exchanged. Therefore, if (6) is solvable for  $b_1 = 16p$ , then  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ .

Finally, let  $b_1 = 4p$ , and suppose that  $N^2 = 4pM^4 + 4pM^2e^2 + 4pe^4$  is solvable. Then  $M$  is odd by  $\gcd(M, 4p) = 1$ . Also,  $2p \mid N$ , and thus  $e$  is odd. Let  $N = 2pN_1$ ,



then  $pN_1^2 = M^4 + M^2e^2 + e^4$ . Thus  $pN_1^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ , hence  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ . We have

$$4pN_1^2 = 4M^4 + 4M^2e^2 + 4e^4 = (2M^2 + e^2)^2 + 3e^4.$$

Now  $p \nmid e$  by  $\gcd(e, b_1) = 1$ , and we get  $p = 3$  or  $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = 1$ . Suppose  $p \neq 3$ . Since  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , we obtain  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = -1$ ,  $p \equiv 5$  or  $7 \pmod{12}$ . Since  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ , we get  $p \equiv 19 \pmod{24}$ .

We proved that if  $\#\alpha(\bar{\Gamma}_{-p}) = 2$ , then  $p = 3$  or  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$  or  $p \equiv 19 \pmod{24}$ . This proves (iv).  $\square$

**Proof of Theorem 3.4** Statements (i) and (ii) of the theorem follow from Lemma 3.5 and from (4). If  $p = 2$  or  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then the rank of  $\Gamma_{-p}$  is zero by Lemma 3.5 and (4).

What remains to prove is that the rank of  $\Gamma_{-3}$  is zero. Since  $\#\alpha(\bar{\Gamma}_{-3}) \leq 2$  by Lemma 3.5, it is enough to show that  $\#\alpha(\Gamma_{-3}) \leq 2$ .

Consider the curve  $C_{-3} : y^2 = x^3 - 6x^2 - 27x$ . Then  $b_1 \in \{\pm 1, \pm 3, \pm 9, \pm 27\}$ , and thus  $\alpha(\Gamma_{-3}) \subset \{\pm 1, \pm 3\} \pmod{\mathbb{Q}^{*2}}$ . We show that  $3 \notin \alpha(\Gamma_{-3})$ . Suppose  $3 \in \alpha(\Gamma_{-3})$ . Then the equation  $N^2 = b_1M^4 - 6M^2e^2 - (27/b_1)e^4$  is solvable for at least one of  $b_1 = 3$  and  $b_1 = 27$ .

Suppose that  $N^2 = 3M^4 - 6M^2e^2 - 9e^4$  is solvable. Then  $3 \nmid M$  by  $\gcd(M, 9) = 1$ , and  $3 \nmid e$  since  $3 \mid N$ . Let  $N = 3N_1$ . Then  $3N_1^2 = M^4 - 2M^2e^2 - 3e^4$ , hence  $M^4 \equiv 2M^2e^2 \pmod{3}$ , which is impossible.

Finally, suppose that  $N^2 = 27M^4 - 6M^2e^2 - e^4$  is solvable. Then  $3 \nmid e$  by  $\gcd(e, b_1) = 1$ . Thus  $N^2 \equiv -e^2 \pmod{3}$ , which is impossible.  $\square$

**Corollary 3.6** *If  $p = 2$ ,  $p = 3$  or  $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then the curves  $C_p$  and  $C_{-p}$  have no nontrivial rational points.*  $\square$

## 4 Numerical Examples

As the following table shows, for all primes  $3 < p < 100$ , if  $p \not\equiv 7 \pmod{24}$ , then at least one of the curves  $C_p$  and  $C_{-p}$  has nontrivial rational points and, consequently,  $\Gamma_p$  or  $\Gamma_{-p}$  has positive rank. Note that the point  $(75, 210)$  belongs to both  $C_{-23}$  and  $C_{73}$ .

The points below were found by searching for integer solutions of  $N^2 = b_1M^4 \pm 2pM^2e^2 + b_2e^4$  with  $b_1b_2 = -3p^2$ , and putting  $x = b_1M^2/e^2$ ,  $y = b_1MN/e^3$ . The solutions for  $p \neq 83$  were found by using GNU Octave (<https://www.gnu.org/software/octave/>). I am grateful to Peter Salvi for finding a solution for  $p = 83$ ; he used Julia 1.0 (<https://julialang.org/blog/2018/08/one-point-zero>).

$$p = 5 : (-1, 8) \in \Gamma_{-5},$$

$$p = 11 : (75, 720) \in \Gamma_{11},$$

$$p = 13 : (-12, 90) \in \Gamma_{13},$$

$$p = 17 : (-1, 30) \in \Gamma_{17},$$

$$\begin{aligned}
p = 19 & : \left( \frac{17689}{225}, \frac{1374688}{3375} \right) \in \Gamma_{-19}, \\
p = 23 & : (75, 210) \in \Gamma_{-23}, \\
p = 29 & : \left( -\frac{529}{25}, \frac{16744}{125} \right) \in \Gamma_{-29}, \\
p = 37 & : \left( \frac{231361}{324}, \frac{116481365}{5832} \right) \in \Gamma_{37}, \\
p = 41 & : (-121, 198) \in \Gamma_{41}, \\
p = 43 & : \left( \frac{4165798849}{21538881}, \frac{171543655606240}{99961946721} \right) \in \Gamma_{-43}, \\
p = 47 & : (1875, 79050) \in \Gamma_{-47}, \\
p = 53 & : \left( -\frac{167281}{4225}, \frac{89165272}{274625} \right) \in \Gamma_{-53}, \\
p = 59 & : \left( -\frac{930433009}{6076225}, \frac{13189530387264}{14977894625} \right) \in \Gamma_{59}, \\
p = 61 & : (-108, 1170) \in \Gamma_{61}, \\
p = 67 & : \left( \frac{909373939321}{51279921}, \frac{863887766632341760}{367215514281} \right) \in \Gamma_{-67}, \\
p = 71 & : (507, 9282) \in \Gamma_{-71}, \\
p = 73 & : (75, 210) \in \Gamma_{73}, \\
p = 83 & : \left( -\frac{2140232721200}{59682001401}, \frac{13897116923228469980}{14580253260262899} \right) \in \Gamma_{83}, \\
p = 89 & : \left( -\frac{121}{289}, \frac{489280}{4913} \right) \in \Gamma_{-89}, \\
p = 97 & : \left( -\frac{121}{25}, \frac{45408}{125} \right) \in \Gamma_{-97}.
\end{aligned}$$

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